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# *The* Journal of Educational Sociology

*A Magazine of Theory and Practice*

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Vol. IV

SEPTEMBER, 1930

No. 1

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# The Journal of Educational Sociology

*A Magazine of Theory and Practice*

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# **The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY**

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## **EDITORIAL**

Much attention has been given in the literature of recent years to the marked changes in our material culture and scientific progress and the corresponding lag in change in our nonmaterial culture; namely, customs, institutions, folkways, and the like.

Perhaps in no field of our endeavor has there been more change than in that of economics and politics. It is, therefore, particularly pertinent to devote this issue of **THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY** to a study of economics and education. These papers have been presented in connection with the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology and some of them have been presented at their meetings. Unfortunately, the space at our disposal in the September number makes it impossible to include all of the material and therefore it will have to be distributed in later numbers. The papers have been prepared by leaders in the field and bear directly upon the problem of education in its fundamental aspects.

**THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY** is fortunate in presenting these papers and is happy to coöperate with the National Society which has made **THE JOURNAL** its official organ.

## PLANNING FOR ECONOMIC PROGRESS

L. C. MARSHALL

The merest glance at the papers in this symposium shows that they raise the fundamental issue: *Can we plan our economic progress?* A more detailed reading of them reveals something of the staggering character of the problems which are raised in attempting to answer such a question affirmatively.

If one inquires—and this I have been asked to do—how our educational system is to be of service in such a connection, an almost unlimited field opens up before one. In the interests of brevity I shall content myself with alleging, without argument, two propositions. The first is that the economic aspects of this matter cannot wisely be considered as separate and distinct from the rest of the social structure. There is, after all, no such thing as an economic order. To speak of an economic order is merely to take a specialized point of view towards the whole social order. The second is that our educational system has up to the present time been too greatly concerned with surface manifestations of the social order. It has interested itself with “problems of the day” and with “the institutional life” of our society. It is right and proper that these matters should have absorbed much of our attention. But the time has come when they ought to be considered in the larger setting of the part they play in the “basic processes” of society.

While I have no intention of arguing the position just taken, it may be worth while to illustrate it by calling attention to the paper on the educational system which is emerging in Soviet Russia. There, so the paper indicates, the “problems of the day” are not in large part the problems which we talk of, and the institutional life is certainly markedly different. The educational system of that coun-

try is attempting to strike deeper than these surface matters and to deal with those underlying processes which are common to all modern societies, no matter what their more ephemeral problems and institutions may be.

The papers in this symposium assume that it is desirable to make a *conscious* effort to equip the oncoming generations to play their part in an *evolving* economic society. What are the basic processes of social living which the oncoming generations must understand, if they are to play this part intelligently?<sup>1</sup>

The following numbered paragraphs represent one possible way—it is only one way—of stating the essential processes of social living.

1. *The process of the continuance of the group, biologically speaking.* Connected with this process there are many "problems of the day" and many "institutions," said problems and institutions varying from time to time and from group to group.

In order to give specific content to the foregoing a few of the "problems of the day" are listed: eugenics, public health, race suicide, birth control, form of family, infant mortality. And a few of the "institutions" affected are listed: family, public-health service, educational system.

2. *The process of the continuance of the group, culturally speaking—*the transmission of culture. As a matter of convenience in arrangement this may be made to include: the accumulation of culture, the conservation of culture, the change of culture, the selection of culture—or some of these may be factored out and listed elsewhere. In either event, connected herewith are many "problems of the day" and many "institutions," said problems and institutions varying from time to time and from group to group.

A few of the problems are: propaganda, elevating the press, improving the schools, improving the family, stimulating invention, improving communication between nations and other groups. A few of the institutions are: family, church, school, gang, the press, language, government.

3. *The process of developing or establishing "value standards" or "norms" for the group* (including value standards with respect to the

<sup>1</sup> A separable question is this: How shall we state these basic processes (assuming we can find them) for reading and for use by teachers, school administrators, text writers, and others? With this question I am not now concerned.

Another separable question is this: How shall instructional material be organized and how shall schools be managed so as most effectively to give the oncoming generations the desired understanding of social processes (assuming we can find them)? With this question I am not now concerned.

relationship of the group to the individual and with respect to the relationship of individual to individual). This includes "conscious" as well as "unconscious" development of value standards; it includes value standards on "important" and on "unimportant" matters; it extends to the areas of small groups and subgroups.

A few of the problems are: establishing codes of ethics for special groups, determining the "proper" function of private property, improving our attitudes on consumption of wealth, establishing attitudes on the "place" of competition, "good" manners, international labor standards, the making of laws, freedom of the press. A few of the institutions and devices are: public discussion, educational system, church, family, legislature, gang, association of university professors, research institutions in social science, the press.

4. *The process of enforcing a (minimum) conformity* (by the members of the group) to certain minimum standards or norms. This calls for interpreting agencies, adjudicating agencies, enforcing agencies, etc. Bulking large in current discussions are such matters as the courts, the government, the police. This emphasis upon governmental agencies should not cause us to overlook similar operations by the head of the family, by the trade union, by the gang, by the business executive, and by countless others. Nor should it conceal the operations of habit, custom, imitation, emulation, whatnot. Presumably, it is self-evident that it will be necessary to determine the *areas* in which conformity will be demanded, and also the *extent* of the conformity within those areas.

A few of the problems are: crime, regulation of child labor, enforcement of contracts, prohibition, control of opium traffic, theft of private property, prostitution, enforcing good manners in the home, "bumping off" the gangster who kicks over the traces. A few of the institutions and devices are: drum head court martial, the courts, the police, boycott, the strike, social commendation or opprobrium, imitation, custom.

5. *The process of maintaining the "requisite group integrity"* so that the life of the group may be lived. In some cases this means a small group, in other cases a nation, in other cases an international arrangement. A given individual may belong to several such groups. What will be "requisite" in the matter of group integrity will vary from time to time, from issue to issue, and from group to group.

Among the problems are: the division of functions between State and Federal government, the wisdom of entering the League of Nations, maintenance of the home, the mine check-off system of paying labor union dues, the tendency of institutional groups to outlive their usefulness, restriction of immigration. Among the institutions and devices are: "anti-alien" regulations of all kinds, patriotism, geographical units of government, Catholic Church, Army and Navy.

6. Since "the group" and "the individual" are complementary, *there is the process of arranging for or fixing "the place of the individual."* This is equally true under a caste system, under communism, despotism, or any other ism.

But in the interests of brevity, let us for the moment assume the "individual" to be the goal of our thinking—let us assume the desirability of the "democratic" outlook. Under this assumption, the process now under consideration becomes that of "securing the basis for sturdy individualism." This will involve (doubtless among other things):

- a) Conferring the sound biological basis. *Vide* discussions of eugenics, inheritance of acquired characters, etc.
- b) Establishing the social minimum of opportunity. *Vide* discussions of social legislation, minimum wage, equality before the law, debtors, exemption acts, the providing of information concerning opportunities ranging from vocational guidance to publicity concerning profits, part of the motivation problem, property "for use," real versus nominal freedom.
- c) Conferring the "desired" "attitudes" and "norms" and "abilities" upon the individual.
- d) Securing effective motivation of the individual.
- e) The whole issue of who are "persons" for given purposes and what is to be done about it. What kind of a "person" is a Negro? A woman? An unskilled worker?

7. *The process of making available economic goods* (both wealth and services). This process must be carried out by all groups from the collectional savage group to industrial America, but for brevity, let us think for the moment in terms of our current life.

There are involved: (a) technological or "engineering" considerations, and here is part of the reason why the social studies must consort with the physical and biological sciences; (b) considerations having to do with the "social organization" which has come into existence for the purpose at issue.

In any economic group (and hence in our own society) there are certain great economic processes which must be performed.

- a) In one way or another it will be decided what to produce and how much to produce.
- b) In one way or another the group will be organized to do this work—the social energy of the group will be apportioned among the tasks—and the work will be supervised.
- c) In one way or another the product of the group (and this includes not only food, clothing, and shelter but all sorts of other things such as education, medical service, or recreation) will be divided up among the members of society.
- d) In one way or another the size and composition of the population will be determined and it will be distributed over the natural and cultural areas of the community.
- e) With respect to all these processes there will develop institutional settings in which they will be accomplished. In particular there will develop group codes or standards.

Presumably it is not necessary to cite problems of the day or institutions and devices.

8. *The process of the organization and administration of the instruments of the social will*—the process of providing the (changing) institutions, mechanisms, devices, whatnot, through which the other processes may be worked out. This statement is meant to include ongoing devising of ever more effective instrumentalities—more effective in their response to social and individual needs and more effective in and of themselves in performing their particular tasks. As examples of the range of things involved in this process the following are cited:

- a) Determining of the "sphere" of each such agency; determining its objective and its appropriate area of action.
- b) Working out and setting up the organization of each such agency.
- c) Operating each such agency.

If we assume a "democratic" outlook with reliance upon "representative" methods in both policy formation and execution, there is contained within this eighth process (in government, in business, in whatnot) the tasks of:

- a) Determining the area or scope or field of presentation as compared with direct handling.
- b) Determining the plan or basis of representation and the methods of selecting representatives.
- c) Determining methods to be followed by representatives.
- d) Keeping representatives responsive and responsible to the basic group—keeping control of representatives.

The foregoing admittedly fragmentary outline<sup>2</sup> shows something of the magnitude of the task which confronts those who would plan our economic progress. It goes without saying that our forward movement in this respect will be a matter of particular progress at particular times under particular circumstances. But it is helpful to reflect upon the problem as a whole, and the outstanding service of the papers in this group is that they stimulate this reflection, and at the same time they deal with specific problems.

<sup>2</sup> If desired, the process of shaping the individual may be given separate standing (but see number 6); and if this is done it will cover biological inheritance, cultural inheritance, physiological manipulations, psychological manipulations, etc., not overlooking his motivation.

If desired, the process of adjusting population to the natural and cultural resources of regions of the earth may be given separate standing or it may be included under number 7.

If desired, government might be taken up for special analysis, but there is nothing either peculiar or sacred about government. It is merely an agency.

If desired, separate treatment could be worked out in "local," "municipal," "national," "racial," or "international" terms, but there seems no substantial reason for relying upon this classification as a major basis of organizing the presentation of social processes.



## LABOR AND EDUCATION

WILLIAM GREEN

Labor has always attached a special importance to education and we are proud of the important part we had in establishing our public-school system, securing compulsory school attendance laws, providing vocational education, and pointing the way to adult education.

Education, Labor realizes, is a big lifting force. Lack of education brings poverty. Poverty holds people in the clutches of ignorance. We are anxious to have the tools and materials with which to construct our pathway to better things. The public-school system provides our first opportunity. To these public schools we send our children, hoping they will acquire there information and personal habits that will enable them to get on in living and working.

Much of our life and work is concerned with industry and industrial communities. Therefore, much of the information we need to understand life and work and to meet these problems intelligently should be suggested by industries themselves. Personal habits of mind and character are largely the tools needed for successful living in an industrial environment and civilization. We need therefore to study work and industrial civilization in order to plan school curricula adapted to present-day needs.

We need to analyze the work men and women do to enable schools to send them out to this work, prepared to work and live to their highest capacity and to have satisfaction in developing capacity. This analysis will give us in part the material content of curricula. Just as important as information is interpretation of social institutions, the interrelation of social and economic forces, and understanding and familiarity with the tools and technique of social living. This implies understanding of social organization and seeing why associated undertakings are essential to



present-day undertakings. Our whole social and industrial life is highly complex and highly organized, and those boys and girls who understand social forces and institutions will be best fitted to take their places in the world of work. In addition to our analysis of work itself, therefore, we need to analyze social institutions, what they are and why they are, in order to introduce this kind of material into the constructive program.

We are realizing as never before that national prosperity is dependent on our working out a technique of economic equilibrium adjustments between markets and production, earnings or consumer power and production. Interrelation of interests, large-scale production, mergers, all make necessary coöperation in social and economic life. Since social institutions are the framework upon which national life depends, we feel they should have a relative position in school curricula.

Nor is it enough to analyze the social and economic institutions of the day. Schools must be aware of changes. The distinguishing characteristic of the past ten years in industry was rapidity of change. This is a factor with which schools should reckon in order to help men and women to have the capacity of adaptability to change. Capacity to adapt sharply distinguishes the educated person from the uneducated—the successful from the unsuccessful.

We believe that as education implies something more than instruction, so our curriculum should include something more than opportunity to acquire information. We believe there should be mental discipline, development of such good habits as accuracy, punctuality, responsibility, resourcefulness.

We believe that good workmanship and good life are inseparably associated and that, by developing a school curriculum that will lead to much intelligent understanding of industrial organization, it will help to get our industrial

civilization on the soundest base possible and will open opportunities for higher intellectual and spiritual development. Good work provides the means for stimulating growth and development for the workers as individuals.

To sum up, Labor suggests that the school curricula draw for their content upon the facts of industry and industrial work, upon the history of social and economic institutions and their economic progress, and that, coördinated with such an instructional program, should go understanding of how to live and work with others so that each individual may reach the highest development.

## LAND PLANNING AND EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

RICHARD T. ELY

It is through planning that we are coming to a wise utilization of land; and by wise utilization I mean that utilization of all classes of land, especially urban and agricultural land, that at a given time and place yields desirable human satisfactions of our felt needs. Some of these are expressed more easily in psychic and nonpecuniary returns. Land has been utilized generally without carefully worked-out plans and especially is this the case in the United States. Our abundant, even superabundant resources, have been such that we have made rapid national progress notwithstanding this planlessness, which often amounted to antisocial utilization. Our wasteful exploitation of natural resources is familiar to all, and when we have been called a nation of butchers on account of the amount of needless waste, we have been obliged to acknowledge a considerable justification in the charge. But the progress of this nation and its vast wealth have been attended with staggering individual and sectional suffering. The impoverishment of New England and Southern farmers furnishes illustrations of sectional economic suffering; and the grazing homestead of six hundred and forty acres, called by Colonel Greeley, late chief of the United States Forest Service, a social crime, would furnish illustration of individual loss and ruin.

We are just beginning to adopt the idea of planned progress in the utilization of land; and I know of nothing calculated better to bring about a widely diffused general prosperity. Planned progress is seen in recent improvements in the utilization of properly selected land for the growth of trees; that is to say, for forests, and, of course, forests are simply one kind of crop. I might by way of illustration speak of what New York and Wisconsin are

<sup>1</sup> An address given before the Educational Sociology section of the American Sociological Society, Washington, D. C., December 30, 1929.

just beginning to do to secure forests in the future, suitably located, of proper size, on land that should be used for crops of this kind.

The subject is so vast that I shall take the utilization of land as my topic and attempt in a few generalizations to tell what this is coming to mean and what it should mean with respect to education. And what a big word education is! The whole topic is staggering in its magnitude. One could talk for hours and days on this subject. Planned utilization requires education. First of all, it involves education in research of the highest type. We must know facts and then diffuse the knowledge of facts in the planning of land utilization which will give us the highest attainable wealth in that phase of economic evolution which we have reached. And I use wealth in the sense in which Ruskin a generation or more ago taught us to use it—human weal, including, for example, the satisfaction of soul and body in wandering through some of the glorious forests of Germany.

On one of the walls of the quarters of our Institute for Research in Land Economics and Public Utilities at Northwestern University, you will find this quotation from Herbert Hoover: "The nation today needs more support to research. It needs still more laboratories. . . . And scientific research means more than its practical results in increased living comfort. The future of our nation is not merely a question of the development of our industries, of reducing the cost of living, of multiplying our harvests, or of larger leisure. We must constantly strengthen the fiber of national life by the inculcation of that veracity of thought which springs from the search for truth. From its pursuit we shall discover the unfolding of beauty, we shall stimulate the aspiration for knowledge, we shall ever widen human understanding."

Walking along a little further in the same hall, you will find this quotation from Owen D. Young: "Facts can be

applied in any field. Our curse is ignorance. Facts are our scarcest raw material. This is shown by the economy with which we use them. One has to dig deep for them, because they are as difficult to get as they are precious to have. . . . I shall be happy if we can substitute the calm findings of the investigator for the blatant explosions of the politicians."

What do these quotations signify for education and land planning? First, education in research, digging for facts and interpretation of facts. This is education of the highest university type, taxing the best powers of the keenest intellects that can be secured as workers in this field. Hundreds and hundreds of millions of dollars are involved and the health, happiness, and prosperity of millions are at stake. One gets down to fundamental problems of world peace; for wars have largely been the result of the absence of international land planning. Why? Because no plans are in force for the fair distribution of food and raw materials, especially minerals, among the nations of the earth.

Land planning is dependent upon the classification of the land with respect to its various uses, and to make such a classification of the land is an extremely difficult and complex problem.

Education must secure pertinent facts and the knowledge of these facts must be widely diffused. And the education of all social groups must proceed until desirable action is secured.

Urban utilization of land with us is shockingly primitive. Adequate expenditures have been made to give us satisfactory housing but, on account of the absence of proper planning, the housing of the people is in too many cases inadequate and even wretched.

But as I proceed I am simply overwhelmed with the magnitude of the task assigned me. Let me close with a concrete illustration of well-planned urban land utilization and show its relation to education. I have in mind the opera-

tions of the City Housing Corporation of New York City, a limited dividend company that is now building in New Jersey a city called Radburn, the first city designed for the motor age instead of the horse and buggy age of other cities. This is an urban laboratory for our Institute for Research in Land Economics and Public Utilities. Learning what the costs are in the best construction of a well-planned, modern city is an educational process; and some of the findings are of vast significance. Education in our higher institutions of learning must utilize these facts and through ascertained standards and methods must bring about that vast improvement in housing which is possible without increased expenditures—indeed, with smaller expenditures. It means also training of workers. Education also involves the preparation of textbooks, some simple and elementary, others complex and difficult suited to various grades of learners. All this means, furthermore, a vast adventure in adult education, involving such activities as the recent broadcasting at Northwestern University of lectures on "Buying, Building, and Beautifying a Home."

Education in land planning has fairly begun. I know of no better field for leadership of the very best brains of our country. Ultimately education in land planning will mean many things, such as better homes, less waste with more economical utilization of the land, more abundant and widely diffused prosperity, a better understanding of past and present history, and aid in laying the economic foundation of world peace.



## EDUCATION AND RATIONAL CONSUMPTION

HAZEL KYRK

There are various signs of a widespread and growing concern for the education of the consumer. We are not so happy as we once were about the American standard of living. We do not like certain expressions of the national taste. The very hugeness of the recent estimates of the national income makes us somewhat uneasy because of the opportunity for healthful, truly civilized life that they suggest—opportunity which we feel is by no means satisfactorily realized. We are beginning to recognize the significance of the individual's actions as consumer. We are beginning to see consumers' goods not only as the end-products of industry, but also as the means by which we fulfill our interests and desires. We see that their character determines the quality of our lives. The public utterances of schoolmen more and more frequently contain references to this need for the education of consumers. Chancellor Lindley of Kansas gave it a prominent place in his presidential address to the Association of State Universities at their Chicago meeting in 1925. "In the judgment of some thoughtful observers," he said, "the prestige of State universities in the immediate future will wax or wane in proportion as these institutions respond to the problem of consumption in this country."

Hitherto deliberate campaigns and plans for the "education" of the consumer have been those of manufacturers or dealers. Their aim of course was to bring about the purchase and use of some particular good or service. Indeed the demand that the schools concern themselves with the education of the consumer is to a large extent the result of the desire to transfer this education from biased to unbiased hands and to make it systematic and comprehensive instead of sporadic, unsystematic, and incomplete. There



is recognition, too, of the fact that the schools have been educating people to sell although they have not been educating them to buy. President Hall, of the University of Oregon, in his inaugural address, speaks on this point: "But has not the time arrived when we must think of the consumers as well as the venders of the goods of life? Must we not think of the public welfare along with the importance of high-powered salesmanship? . . . Must we not be as much concerned with training the people for intelligent decision as we are in training those who seek to guide the people's choice?"

Education for "consumption" may, however, mean different things to different people because of the varying connotations of the word consumption. To some rational consumption may mean rational use. It means oiling the machine according to directions and storing it carefully; it means using left-over foods; it means brushing and repairing one's clothes. In short, in this sense it has to do mainly with lengthening the life of durable goods and avoiding waste of foodstuffs and other supplies and materials.

To others education for consumption means education for market selection, what Miss Hoyt in *The Consumption of Wealth* calls the technology of consumption. The problem in market selection is how to secure the good that will best serve your purpose with a minimum expenditure of time, energy, and money. Here is obviously a wide field for education—for education primarily of the informational type. It is a field too where education is badly needed. Indisputable evidence appears almost daily that consumers do not know the articles that will best serve their purposes or cannot recognize them in the concrete goods on the market. An incalculable amount of time, energy, and money is daily being wasted, far more than the losses through careless use. Those who plan education for consumption in this sense must keep in mind two things. One is the variety and small scale of the household buyer's pur-

chases, and the other that the possibility of rational choices between goods offered on the market is conditioned at least as much by the current market devices and arrangements as by the buyer's information.

There is a third meaning of the phrase "education for rational consumption." It may mean such education of consumers as will change the wants themselves. It may mean education that makes for rational choice in the sense that it attempts to shape the desires, interests, and values that are behind choice. The distinction between this type of education and the preceding is clearly put by Miss Hoyt. She says, "The intelligent direction of consumption may be approached from two points of view: The first is, What is best for us? The second is, How can we get what we want and get it best? The second point of view does not lead us to attempt to pass judgment on the character of our wants but is concerned only with how we can most economically gratify them . . . how may we recognize what we want and get the best qualities for the least money?"<sup>1</sup>

Education that has as its objective the molding of the character of wants is obviously the most difficult as well as the most important of the three forms of education of the consumer. It is difficult for three reasons. One is the limitation upon what we know about human needs and the ways of meeting them. Miss Hoyt says, "After scientific knowledge has done for us the utmost that it is now capable of doing and indeed the utmost that we can forecast for it at present, it will have answered less than half the questions that we should like to have answered for directing our consumption on a scientific basis."<sup>2</sup> Consumption must therefore to a large extent be conceived and taught as an art and not as an applied science. Especially must those who set themselves up to guide along this line be careful not to derive their "oughts" from what is, or to

<sup>1</sup> Elizabeth Ellis Hoyt, *The Consumption of Wealth* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928), p. 176.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 186.

derive norms for conduct from statistical averages without being fully conscious of what they are doing.

The second obstacle to the successful molding of consumers' attitudes and values through a program of formal education lies in the strong forces outside that may be exercising a counter influence. The family, the church, the neighbors, the crowd, commercial agencies, the upper classes, the press, all shape and mold our standards for food, clothing, housing, recreation, reading material, and aesthetic satisfactions. Think, for example, of the task before the school if it should attempt to make women's desires for clothing rational. The third obstacle to a program of education for rational consumption in the sense that that term is here being used is our ignorance of the motivation of a great deal of consumers' behavior. We must know why people want what they do before we can change their wants. We must know the psychology of their present choices, how their present attitudes and values came to be, before we can substitute others.

The above analysis would suggest that there is need for both a direct and an indirect attack upon the problem of consumers' desires and standards. The direct attack is the organized attempt to supply consumers with the information that science provides in regard to physical or other needs and the means of meeting them. It means inducting them into the wisdom of the past in regard to the art of living, giving them the best thought of the ages in regard to what ends are worth while. Along with this would go presumably an attempt to coördinate and unify all the forms of education for rational consumption now going on in our schools. When we see how broad is the field of the consumer's choices, covering not only food and clothing but houses, furniture, motor cars, forms of recreation, books, pictures, newspapers, plays, we see that in various guises a great deal of education for rational consumption is already going on. It may be the task of departments of

home economics to coördinate in some fashion these diverse attempts to shape the consumers' standards of choice.

The indirect attack upon the problem is, it is conceived, no less important than the direct; indeed it supplements and makes effective the direct. One aspect of it is the application of sound educational psychology and procedure in this field. Can we attain our purpose, for example, by issuing a series of commandments, saying, this is what you ought to do; these are the right foods, clothes, types of dwellings, books, pictures, etc.? It is true that America with its growth in wealth and absence of class barriers presents an interesting picture of thousands of consumers anxious to know the right way to dine and to dress, the right sort of book to read and pictures to put on the wall. But it is the usage of the social élite that they seek, not what may be properly called a rational basis for consumption. They may give heed if physical health is threatened by an unsound practice, but otherwise it is doubtful whether the authoritarian method of instruction by precept would move them.

The second form of indirect attack upon the problem consists in making the consumers themselves aware of the bases and character of their choices. Its objective is to make them conscious of the motives that guide them, the nature of the values they seek, the forces that have been influencing their choices. Such choice-conscious consumers will be set, it is believed, on the road towards rational consumption. Emphasis on budgeting evidently plays its part here, tying all parts of the consumptive plan definitely together. The danger is that the budget become a means of getting what they now want, or, as Mrs. McMahon points out, of successfully imitating on a minimum income the standard of living of a higher income level rather than a tool to promote rational consumption.

The third, possibly the most important and certainly the most difficult, line of indirect attack upon the problem of

rational consumption is the attempt to bring about discrimination, self-reliance, and independence of judgment on the part of consumers. Every one who studies our present-day habits of consumption is struck by the absence of originality and by our slavish deference to the correct mode and to what others are doing. The education that the consumer needs most is one that will free him from his blind conformity. He must learn to consult his individual need, to form his own judgments, to desire for himself and to respect in others a creative, experimental attitude towards the various means that are offered him for the enhancement of his health and comfort, or the enrichment of his experience. This phase of the education of the consumer, most sadly lacking today, is the one that the schools should most sedulously cultivate in the future.

## EDUCATION AND THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN OF SOVIET RUSSIA

GEORGE S. COUNTS

There are certain institutions and relationships in the revolutionary order of Soviet Russia which have received altogether too little attention in the American press. We have heard much about the Communists, about the Soviets, about the labor unions, about the Pioneers, about the Society of Atheists, about the Red Army, and about the Gay-Pay-Oo. We have also heard much about nepmen and kulaks and the persecution of religion. On the other hand, we have heard but little about the system of planning organs and the relationship of that system to the institutions of public education. Here we have, in my judgment, the most distinctive features of the new society which is evolving beyond the Vistula today.

Even in those narrow circles in which the system of planning organs is known, the prevailing conception is full of error. The common view seems to be that this system is very simple in structure, and consists essentially of a state-planning commission in Moscow composed of some fifteen or sixteen economists. According to this view, moreover, these economists sit in their swivel chairs and evolve from time to time elaborate plans with regard to the economic development of the country. Such a picture grievously falsifies the actual situation.

The planning organs of Soviet Russia constitute a vast system which reaches from Moscow to the most remote corners of the Union. There is, to be sure, an All-Union Planning Commission with offices in Moscow. But there is also a planning commission in each of the republics comprising the Union, a planning commission in each of the great oblasts into which a republic is divided, a planning commission in each orkug within an oblast, and embryonic and partial planning commissions in the yet smaller politi-



cal divisions. These various commissions, moreover, sustain intimate relationships with the Soviets, with the Communist Party, with the professional unions, with the great economic trusts, and with the other organs of the social structure. They are also welded together into a single instrument and made to constitute a vast and complex system which is devoted to social planning just as the schools are devoted to education or the police force to the maintenance of order. Thus the elaboration of any plan involves the flow of ideas and information back and forth throughout this entire system of planning organs and the holding of numerous conferences within the different political divisions of representatives of the planning commissions. In the year 1928 there were held sixteen All-Union conferences, as well as numerous smaller conferences, dealing with various phases of the five-year plan of construction.

This system of planning organs is the product of the efforts of the Soviet Government to plan the public economy and has evolved gradually since the October Revolution. These efforts, rapidly gaining volume with the passage of the years, have given to the Russian people a unique experience in the sphere of planning. With great courage and vigor, Soviet economists have entered a field of endeavor which is practically closed to economists in capitalistic countries. The extent of this experience is revealed by the fact that bibliographies are already appearing which include hundreds of titles.

#### THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Intimately related to the system of planning organs is a system of education which differs radically from the other educational systems of the world. The major point to be noted here is the breadth of the scope of this educational system. It embraces not only schools but also numerous other institutions. It includes the press, the moving picture, the radio, the library, reading rooms, the bookstore, clubs, young people's organizations, museums, art galleries,



and even the army. Moreover, there are two systems of schools: the one, embracing nurseries, kindergartens, primary schools, secondary schools, and higher institutions, is designed for the coming generation; the other, composed of points for the liquidation of illiteracy, Soviet Party schools, Communist universities, and a great variety of correspondence and extension courses providing both special and general education, ministers to the educational needs of adults.

In building the new social order this relationship between the planning organs and the educational system is one of very great importance. Through the former the new social order is being planned in great detail; and through the latter forces are being mobilized on a huge scale for the realization of the plans. What may come out of this union of social planning and education cannot of course be predicted today. Some years must pass yet before conclusions may be safely drawn. It would seem, however, that the Soviet leaders have forged an instrument of extraordinary power.

The nature and significance of this relationship between the planning organs and the educational system may well be illustrated by an examination of the five-year plan which was launched in October 1928. The fact should be observed, however, that this plan represents but one of the major achievements of the planning organs. Under the direct inspiration and leadership of Lenin, beginning in 1920, there was developed a ten-year program for the construction of thirty regional electric stations. In 1925-1926 appeared for the first time the so-called "control figures" on the basis of which the development of industry, agriculture, transport, and other branches of the public economy is planned for the succeeding year. A third large undertaking which has recently been completed is the re-regioning of the country on the basis of the facts of geography, ethnology, and industry.

#### THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The five-year plan, which is by far the largest achievement of the planning organs, was developed during a period of two and one-half years. In its original form it was organized in two variants. The one was called the minimum, the other the optimum variant. They differed not in purpose but rather in terms of the rate of development contemplated; both provided for the industrialization of the country and the socialistic reconstruction of the village. After much debate the optimum variant was approved by the party and the Government. As a consequence, at the present time the five-year plan is identified with the variant which outlined the more rapid building of industry and socialism in the Soviet Union. The other variant, though supported by such names as Rikov, Bucharin, and Tomsy, is already forgotten.

In its provisions the plan may be divided into three divisions: economic, social, and cultural.

The economic program includes such items as construction, the increase of output, the lowering of the cost of production, and the reduction of prices. The magnitude of the plan is shown in the contemplated expenditure during the five-year period of approximately 65 billions of rubles on construction. Almost 16 billion rubles will go into industry, more than 3 billion into electrification, about 10 billion into transport, and perhaps 23 billion into agriculture. The plan outlines particularly the marked development of heavy industry, chemistry, and electrification.

Another important provision of the economic program pertains to the regional distribution of construction. In the past the industries have centered in Leningrad, Moscow, and the Don basin. Under the plan, the Ural region will become a great center of black and colored metallurgy; and the Kuznetsky basin of Siberia, famous for its enormous coal reserves, will enter upon the road of development. Moreover, in the case of agriculture vast new re-

gions will be opened up and the burden of supplying the grain needs of the country will gradually be shifted eastward. Thus from the standpoint of geography the face of the public economy will be appreciably altered.

The social program of the plan has to do with such matters as the improvement of housing conditions, the shortening of hours of labor, the extension of health facilities, and the enlargement of social insurance. It is expected that from 150 to 200 socialistic cities will be built during the five years. Also, and perhaps most important of all, the plan calls for the socialistic reconstruction of the village. According to the original plan, some 27 million hectares of land were to be brought under some form of collective management by 1933. Recent reports from Soviet Russia state that this part of the program has gone forward so rapidly that the goal set for the five years has already been passed. Now the expectation is that practically the whole of agriculture devoted to the raising of grain will be socialized by the autumn of 1931 or the spring of 1932.

The cultural program has also been worked out in great detail. Perhaps the most fundamental element here is the provision for the abolition of illiteracy throughout the Union during the five years. The further and rapid extension of practically all forms of education is also contemplated. Primary education will be made universal; the number of cottage reading rooms will grow from 2,200 to 38,000; and the number of moving-picture stations will increase fourfold. Moreover, the vast program of construction outlined makes necessary the training of an enormous number of specialists. This is regarded as one of the most fundamental and crucial tasks of the entire plan. During the five years, the cultural program will require the expenditure of approximately 16 billion rubles.

The achievement of the plan, which certainly must be regarded as a "program of great works," a phrase which

the Russians commonly apply to it, is requiring and will continue to require the mobilization of human resources on an enormous scale. This process of mobilization may be divided into three divisions: first, the propagation of the plan; second, the training of specialists; and, third, the maintenance of morale. In each case the burden of accomplishment must fall in very large measure upon the educational agencies. A brief reference to the methods employed in the achievement of these three tasks will reveal the intimacy of the relationship between the planning organs and the educational system.

#### THE PROPAGATION OF THE PLAN

From the first the success of the plan has been seen to be clearly dependent upon the thorough and widespread propagation of the provisions of the plan among the masses of workers and peasants. This task was of course achieved in part in the process of developing the plan. The planning organs which spread like a network over the Union acquainted great numbers with the plan before its provisions took definite form. Also, during the period of its development, the plan was discussed in greater or less detail by the Communist Party, the Soviets, the professional unions, and other active groups in the country. Consequently, when the plan was finally launched, an important proportion of the population was already familiar with its purposes and provisions. We are interested here primarily, however, in the systematic efforts that have been made to popularize the plan through the various arms of the educational system.

In the primary school, secondary school, technical school, and university, provision is made everywhere for the study of the five-year plan. For an individual to pass through any one of these institutions without becoming familiar with the major provisions of the plan is practically impossible. For the lower schools, courses and textbooks are being revised to include materials dealing with the plan,

and for the higher schools special lectures on the plan are being organized. To an even greater extent the schools for adults, and particularly the Soviet Party schools and Communist universities, are assuming responsibility for the propagation of the plan. When peasants learn to read they read about the five-year plan, and when they study arithmetic they wrestle with the figures of the plan. The nonscholastic agencies are also brought into service. The press is literally pouring forth books, brochures, articles, and placards about the plan. There are huge volumes of a technical nature designed to furnish guidance to the specialists; then there are small pamphlets dealing in popular fashion with every phase of the plan. The newspapers and journals are filled with news items, articles, and editorials about the program of construction. Artistically executed placards dealing with the plan are distributed to schools, club houses, reading rooms, libraries, and wherever people congregate. Also the moving picture, the radio, and the museum are doing their bit. Moreover special lecturers are being trained and sent into the more backward areas to propagate the plan. Then the Pioneers, the Young Communists, and the more socially conscious members of the professional unions are all participating actively in this gigantic attempt to reach the masses and win them to the support of the plan. Finally attention should be directed to the Red Army which, as a powerful agency of education and propaganda, is now assuming very heavy responsibilities in building the new social order. Thus, every conceivable agency is expected to make its contribution to the propagation of the five-year plan.

#### THE TRAINING OF SPECIALISTS

The second task involved in the mobilization of human resources is the training of specialists. This is certainly one of the most crucial tasks of the five-year plan. Indeed, the achievement of the plan must depend upon the successful performance of this task. According to the original



estimates, the country will require during the five years 45,000 new engineers, 100,000 new technicians, and 1,000,000 new skilled workers. Because of the rapidity with which certain departments of the work has gone forward, all of these figures have been revised upwards.

The preparation of these specialists has placed upon the vocational and professional schools of Soviet Russia a burden of tremendous proportions. The heads of these institutions are literally lying awake nights wrestling with the problem. In the existing schools old courses are being shortened and new courses are being added. Also, new agencies of training are being organized in great numbers and special courses of many types are being arranged by correspondence. And, in those fields where the need is particularly urgent, maintenance stipends for students have been increased in number and amount. Here too the Red Army is rendering large services. In the year 1929 this institution trained 25,000 tractorists and thousands of other workers of lower qualification.

#### THE MAINTENANCE OF MORALE

The task of maintaining morale, courage, and spirit during this period of construction is also a task of the very greatest importance. Since the Soviet Government cannot expect to secure loans from foreign countries, the Russian people must be called upon to sacrifice the luxuries, if not some of the necessities of life. And this willingness to live in the future must be maintained month after month and year after year.

In achieving this task very little apparently has been overlooked. The entire program of construction is dramatized and made to appear in the guise of a gigantic struggle with nature, the cultural backwardness of the country, and external and internal enemies of the new order. Military terms are continually used in reporting the progress of the plan. The papers constantly employ such phrases as "the war for specialists," "the preparation of millions

of warriors for collectivization," and "on the front of construction."

Through the papers the progress of this struggle is reported from day to day. As a consequence the newspaper even seems to be changing its character. The space devoted to the world revolution and labor troubles in foreign countries has been greatly reduced. At the present, for example, even the more important sections of the front page of the *Pravda* are dedicated to the achievement of the five-year plan. An effort seems to be made to report the daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly progress along the entire "front of construction." The point should be made, however, that the attention is by no means confined to the successes. Indeed, it would seem that today the failures receive much more attention than the successes. The pages of the newspaper are simply filled with statements to the effect that in this factory or in that agricultural region the achievement lags behind the program. Also, wherever the plan is fulfilled to excess, the fact is duly and conspicuously recorded.

A word should also be said about the socialistic competition which has swept the country. Apparently almost all institutions and enterprises have entered into contracts with each other for the purpose of increasing production and eliminating waste. These contracts list various items affecting efficiency by which the contests are to be judged. They are extremely interesting documents. Closely related to socialistic competition are the so-called "shock brigades." These brigades are composed of the more eager and enthusiastic workers who voluntarily assume unusual responsibilities for the promotion of construction. The tasks which they undertake are most varied in character. The brigade may be merely a group of workers in a particular factory who engage to serve as examples of industry. It may, however, engage in undertakings of a much more spectacular character. It may carry on the struggle for



the collectivization of agriculture in the village; it may go into remote forests for the purpose of speeding up the lumber industry; or it may go to any point on the "front of construction" where the program is not going well.

Finally, reference should be made to the part that Lenin continues to play in this entire undertaking. He would seem to stand over the five-year plan and other programs of construction in process of formulation as a sort of guardian angel. In defending the plan or any of its provisions the appeal is always to him. Since he was greatly interested in planning and since he helped to launch the earlier plans, it is easy to cull from his numerous writings appropriate quotations in support of any element in the present program. Furthermore, in view of the fact that he holds a place of genuine affection in the hearts of the masses of the people, peasants as well as workers, this appeal constitutes one of the most powerful forces in enlisting the interests and the energies of the masses.

The present account may be closed by a reference to the importance of studying the Soviet experience. While it is altogether too early to pass judgment on the work of the planning organs, we cannot continue to ignore that great body of experience which the Soviet economists are gaining. If the five-year plan is successful and if it is followed, as it no doubt will be, by other plans of a yet more grandiose character, the power which social planning may give to a society can then be gauged with some degree of accuracy. Possibly we shall find that our present practice of placing our confidence in the uncoordinated efforts of separate enterprises represents the last word in human efficiency; possibly we shall find that the society which endeavors to plan its future has a tremendous advantage over the society which entrusts its future to the fates. Whatever the outcome, the experiment now under way in Soviet Russia should be watched by the most intelligent observers that our country can provide.

## EDUCATION AND NATIONAL ECONOMIC RE- CONSTRUCTION AND PROGRESS IN ENGLAND

SIR JOSIAH STAMP

Before one can profitably discuss the bearing of education upon national economic reconstruction and progress in England, it is necessary to form clear ideas as to what that reconstruction and progress really involve. Without giving actual reasons for the conclusions, it may be said that they involve, in general, larger units for the production of articles of established consumption, the elimination of duplicate manufacture in different plants, and the saving of overlapping in distribution. Before these larger units can be successfully constructed by amalgamation, the less efficient units have to be eliminated or brought up-to-date. Before it can be properly decided which are the less efficient units, there must be a much closer regard to comparative process costs than at present exists in most industries. No amalgamation can be made merely from financial results; the technicians should make a close examination of the physical equipment and of the comparative costs before taking important decisions of this kind. The existence of larger units means that Mr. A, who would have been the sole owner of a small business, will in future occupy a responsible salaried position in the general hierarchy of a large organization. Success formerly demanded high powers of competitive endurance, willingness to take risks, while inability to see other people's points of view, to study their feelings, was often a positive asset. Mr. A's new position, however, calls for very different qualities. He must be capable of self-abnegation, of intelligent teamwork, of the power to avoid overlapping, and, although capacity as a soloist is useful, it is still more valuable for him to be a good performer in the orchestra under a supreme leader.

The supreme leader was not wanted before, and he is a new demand of the age of large units. The large unit must avoid the vices of bureaucracy and red tape and combine, in a new and most difficult way, scope for the virtues of individuality with the restraint of discipline. It will not be a case of "sink or swim" and Mr. A the only one affected. Mr. A's qualities will affect the success of the whole business. "Success" in business, therefore, will require rather different personal qualities—a greater power to specialize will undoubtedly be needed, and matters must be decided, not on the basis of personal profit in competition, but with a closer regard to the net economic costs of society. It often happens in a large composite concern that the fullest profitability of one section must be subordinated to the interests of another.

Economic reconstruction and progress will demand a knowledge of the importance of financial stability for long-period borrowing and contracts through price levels, etc. It will require a wiser leadership, both in trade unions and capital federations, than in the past, with a knowledge of economics, so that rules based upon the fallacy of a fixed quantity of work or the economy of low wages may no longer dominate industrial policy.

The progress of rationalization means that there must be an accurate realization of the difference between a mere depression in industry and a permanent change of its direction, because the remedies for the two states are quite different. Such realization is essentially getting a result with the minimum human effort and sacrifice in labor and capital. It means, also, a fearless facing up to the process of "dislocation," and the invention of more rapid means of overcoming the disturbances of the transition period.

Industrial England cannot be properly rationalized without the counterpart of agriculture receiving its attention. No longer must this proceed upon rule-of-thumb lines with traditional methods, but the whole scientific attack

in the average farmer must be quicker. The industrialist, moreover, has to realize that psychological factors are as important to study as changes in machinery.

For this state of affairs the individual will require to have a greater capacity for self-education and certainly a much greater desire to learn. The British characteristic in the past has been to wait for something to happen and then to try to put it right. The future industrialist must have knowledge of a less empirical character and must not be so afraid of principle and forethought. He must have a more ready use for the specialist, especially in testing for facts rather than in trusting to his "nose" and he must rely upon quantitative measures instead of impressions. The individual, in his capacity as a citizen, must have a greater reverence for good saving and directional investment, and a greater horror of bad spending or errors in consumption.

The part that education must play in producing this individual to cope with this changed environment is:

1. To make him rely for his opinions less upon his feelings and more upon evidence
2. To eliminate tradition and prejudice and substitute open-mindedness and reason
3. It should give him greater restlessness and curiosity of mind so that the analysis of ideas is no longer a painful process to be put off to the last possible moment, but full of keen joy in itself

The reduction of everything to the purely mechanical, thus relieving one of all necessity for further thought, should be the anathema of the educational ideal. The system of education should cultivate the power to apply the mind to details, particularly of a difficult and disagreeable sort, but to subordinate detailed "scholarship" to the application of right principle. It should emphasize particularly the meaning of proof and evidence and show the different types that are adequate in the different fields of law, science, history, economics, etc. It should cultivate

the power to arrive at balanced judgments with many conflicting elements. It should develop to a greater extent analytical methods in thinking upon political and economic subjects. Above all, in its best scholars, it should clearly uphold the fact that most problems in business are human and not merely intellectual exercises—that they demand intelligence rather than intellect.

The educational curriculum should, therefore, place less stress upon purely factual achievement and accuracy, and more upon analytically examined problems. It should find place for the history and methods of science and the nature of evidence in history, rather than specialized masses of erudition in scientific and historical knowledge. It should deal at an early stage with sociology and economics and should emphasize the value of travel and languages. It should cultivate quickness of apprehension and manipulation rather than mere retentiveness; it should study how actual human business problems have been successfully overcome. Inasmuch as education has to fit man not only for business but for leisure, the humanities must not be forgotten. But classics and literature and test tubes alone will not suffice as the educational equipment of the business man of the future.

## RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

**EDITORIAL NOTE:** *In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.*

### SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS OF TEACHERS' COLLEGE STUDENTS<sup>1</sup>

The aim of this investigation is to study the interwoven trends which constitute student life in the State Teachers College at Buffalo, New York. No attempt has been made to evaluate any scholastic procedure, or to establish or destroy any thesis; instead, the investigation aims, by recording observed phenomena, to delineate a picture which may be used as suggesting possible fresh points of departure in the formulation of administrative and educational policies and procedures in this and similar institutions.

There is nothing new or original in the attempt to photograph the contemporary life of an institution but such photographs, in the past, have tended to limit themselves either to such aspects of student life as can be statistically treated or to philosophical speculation more or less based on observation. Such a picture is delimited by method and is necessarily lacking in fullness and completeness of detail. Life and civilization are a complex of intertwining and interlocking variables, a continuum<sup>2</sup> analyzable only through the use of a variable and adaptable technique. The analysis of the complex of personalities which comprises a student body is a total-situation study and such a study in the field of teacher training is unique.

<sup>1</sup> Statement furnished by courtesy of Professor Stephen C. Clement, Director of Extension, State Teachers' College, Buffalo, N. Y.

<sup>2</sup> A. A. Goldenweiser, *Early Civilization*, New York: Knopf, 1919, p. 31.



In any total-situation study, the first problem is the necessity of obtaining some kind of orderly procedure. For the purpose of convenience, it was assumed that student life could be satisfactorily grouped around its main origins, activities, and attitudinal sets as follows:

1. Student origins
  - a) The community
  - b) The family
2. Student activities
  - a) Living conditions
  - b) Getting and spending money
  - c) Classroom activities
  - d) Extracurricular activities
  - e) Recreational activities
  - f) Time spending
3. Student attitudinal sets
  - a) Towards the family
  - b) Towards sex
  - c) Towards race
  - d) Towards religion
  - e) Fears and superstitions
  - f) Serious personality maladjustments
  - g) Philosophy of life

This classification is somewhat arbitrary and has no necessarily exclusive merit but is used as a methodological expedient. While certain minor aspects of the total situation may unavoidably be omitted, the classification may be taken as including practically all of the major aspects of the situation.

The choice of institution and the limitation of the study to a single institution is a matter both of expediency and of availability. The State Teachers College at Buffalo, which was immediately accessible for study, undoubtedly has features peculiar to itself alone. But in so far as common elements exist in environment, clientele, aim, administration, and curriculum, the techniques used, the general characteristics arrived at, and the resultant generalizations may be taken as typical of similar institutions.

The techniques used in this study are extremely varied, including:

1. Historical investigation from
  - a) Catalogues and other printed institutional material
  - b) Printed documents, especially reports of the State Department of Education
  - c) Letters from graduates
  - d) Interviews with graduates
2. Ecological investigation
3. Statistical investigation through
  - a) Schedules
  - b) Time sheets
  - c) Questionnaires
4. Personnel investigation by means of
  - a) Life histories
  - b) Individual interviews
  - c) Group interviews
  - d) Narrations
  - e) Schedules
  - f) Questionnaires
  - g) Observation

The degree of objectivity of method determines in large measure the validity of any investigation. Studies of individual behavior, particularly in the fields of emotion and attitude, obtain objectivity only in so far as they are unbiased and undertaken with a definitely scientific purpose. Such procedures demand a high degree of *rappor*t between investigator and those investigated. In order to secure objectivity, the purpose of the investigation was carefully reviewed, and all interviews, case histories, and narrations were given anonymity in all cases in which the student for any reason wished to have it so. *Rappor*t was secured by a long process of friendly consultation both with individuals and with groups. Extremely attitudinal or emotional narration was checked by careful interview. *Rappor*t was also built up through the close classroom association, over a period of from one to three years, of the investigator with the students included in this study.

Had time and facilities permitted, it would have been desirable obviously to conduct a series of mental, physical, and psychiatric examinations throughout the entire student body. While such examinations may explain the cause of individual

adjustment or maladjustment, they do not contribute behavior as it occurs spontaneously in a group. For this reason and because of lack of the necessary highly specialized technicians, this possible phase of the investigation has been omitted.

As a background for the study, the institution as the locus about which student living expresses itself, and the communities which form the background for the out-of-school life of students are briefly characterized. Such a characterization is necessary in order that valid analogy with similar institutions and communities may be derived.

To sum up: This study attempts, by means of historical, ecological, statistical, and personality trend techniques, to picture the complex of behavior which constitutes student life in the State Teachers College at Buffalo, N. Y.

#### NEWSPAPER TREATMENT OF ORIENTAL-WHITE RACE RELATIONS<sup>3</sup>

At Stanford University a study is being made of the growth of racial attitudes where the white race is in contact with Orientals. As a part of this study, the newspaper record is being used as a source of material. It is believed that newspaper stories and editorials present a picture of the tendency of the attitude to express itself in the overt act. A consideration of the act gives opportunity for an interpretation of the attitude which was back of it. For this purpose, all the items that concern the behavior of the Orientals and whites in contact during critical periods, and appearing in a selected newspaper, have been secured, evaluated, measured in column inch units, classified, and filed. Also significant newspaper stories from any source, for the whole period of contact between the races, have been secured and filed as illustrative material. This material is being used as a means of interpreting developing race relations and the growth of racial attitudes.

<sup>3</sup>This statement furnished through the courtesy of Professor C. N. Reynolds, department of economics, Stanford University, California.

## NEW YORK WELFARE COUNCIL STUDIES

The following report on the status of the New York City Welfare Council will be of interest to students of educational sociology both in the New York region and outside. The research bureau of the Council is directed by Dr. Neva R. Deardorff. Dr. Robert E. Chaddock is a consultant. The work of the bureau is at the present time divided into studies of settlements, of the chronically ill, of income and expenditure of social agencies, of social welfare statistics, and of indices of social conditions.

*The following studies have been completed and reports published:*

Where to Turn for Help:

Study of experience of 1766 individuals in search of assistance. 41 pages. Kathryn Farra—out of print, may be consulted at Welfare Council offices.

Aged Dependents Cared for Outside of Institutions by Private Agencies in New York City:

Published in *Labor Legislation Review* in June 1929. \$1.00 a copy.

Correlation between Lodgings of Homeless Men and Employment in New York City: 8 pages. Limited number of copies available.

A Health Inventory of New York City:

A study of the volume and distribution of health service in the five boroughs. 367 pages. Michael M. Davis and Mary C. Jarrett. \$1.00 to Council members. \$2.00 to nonmembers.

*The following studies have been completed but are as yet unpublished:*

Income and Expenditure Study:

An analysis of the income, by sources, and the expenditures, for functions, for the period from 1910-1926 inclusive. Reports completed on:

Trends in Settlements and Neighborhood Houses in New York City, 61 pages.

Trends in Organized Legal Aid in New York City, 11 pages.

Financial Trends of Agencies Engaged in Giving Outdoor Relief in New York City, 73 pages.

Financial Trends of Protective and Correctional Agencies in New York City, Section I, 71 pages. Section II, Probation Work, 24 pages.

**Settlements' Study:**

An inquiry into volume and quality of service of 80 settlements in New York City. Chapters completed:

Locations, Affiliations, Programs, and Personnel of 80 Settlements, 48 pages.

A qualitative Study of Music in 38 Settlements, 55 pages (in course of publication).

Intown Summer Programs in 41 Houses, 35 pages.

The Visual Arts in 28 Houses, 71 pages.

Boys' Athletics in 33 Houses, 55 pages.

Health Work in 30 Houses, 57 pages.

Personal Service in 42 Settlements, 59 pages.

Appraisal of Magazines of 17 Settlements, 14 pages.

Membership of 18 Settlements, 40 pages.

Girls' Clubs and Boys' Clubs in 48 Settlements of New York City, 94 pages.

Holiday Celebrations, 27 pages.

**Studies in the Care of the Homeless:**

Homeless Clients of Fourteen Agencies in New York City. Analysis of social characteristics of 678 homeless men who applied to social agencies for aid in one month, 69 pages.

Use of Municipal Lodging House by Residents and Non-Residents in 1927: Analysis of 6,000 persons using the Lodging House, 52 pages.

Impressions of the Bowery, by Nels Anderson: Types of men on Bowery and their attitudes towards efforts made in their behalf, 15 pages.

**Seamen with Venereal Disease in the Port of New York:**

Based on social data for 961 seamen with venereal disease under treatment in two hospitals and a clinic of the U. S. Public Health Service, 178 pages.

**Monthly Statistics on the Volume of Service (details confidential):**

1. Agencies caring for the homeless
2. Homes for the aged
3. Family service agencies
4. Nonprofit-making employment bureaus
5. Room registries
6. Sheltered workshops

**A Bibliography on the Employment Handicaps of Older Persons:**

Listing and brief description of recent books and articles on this subject published in English, 55 pages.

*The following research projects are now under way:*

**Income and Expenditure Study:**

Entire field of social work to be covered.

**Settlements Study:**

Chapters remain to be written on Classes in English; Commercial Activities; Miscellaneous Activities—House Councils, Game Rooms, Parties, etc.; Day Nurseries, Nursery Schools and Kindergartens; and a general chapter on the problems of administration and organization of settlements.

**Care of Chronically Ill in New York City:**

Reports on facilities for care of chronically ill in public institutions, homes for aged, special and general private hospitals, convalescent homes, nursing organizations, sheltered workshops, and family service agencies.

**Boys' work in Brooklyn.****Guide to Welfare Statistics of New York City:**

Almost completed and may be consulted at Council headquarters.

**Indices of Social Conditions in New York City:**

Series of monthly data have been secured on:

1. Lodgings of homeless persons
2. Almshouse population
3. Patients in public hospitals
4. Public charges in private hospitals
5. Dependent children supported by the City Department of Welfare
6. Dependent children aided by the Board of Child Welfare



## BOOK REVIEWS

*John Dewey, the Man and His Philosophy; Addresses Delivered in New York in Celebration of His Seventieth Birthday.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1930, 181 pages.

In this volume there is nothing but good concerning the living. The cover carries an outline of the somewhat unbiographical career of Professor Dewey. The list of the National Committee for the celebration is given, consisting of one hundred thirty-one persons, of which William H. Kilpatrick was chairman and Henry R. Linville was secretary. In the brief foreword Professor Henry W. Holmes claims for Harvard through the publication of this volume "a modest part . . . in the beneficent work of spreading the light of his teaching."

The inauguration of the plan is described by Dr. Linville, the president of the Teachers Union of New York, in a meeting of whose Executive Board the idea originated. The celebration was to be a personal tribute to Dr. Dewey, as well as public recognition of his contributions to education, philosophy, and social progress. There were three sessions, the luncheon being attended by twenty-three hundred persons.

The account of Dr. Dewey's contribution to education is given by Drs. Kilpatrick, Moore, Newlon, and Kandel; his contribution to philosophy is recorded by Drs. Mead and Schneider; and his contribution to social welfare by Jane Addams and James Harvey Robinson. In response at the luncheon Dr. Dewey spoke with great modesty and appreciation, expressing his conviction "that there is nothing so important in life as the free, unobstructed communication of ideas and experiences and their transmission from one to another, without any kind of restriction, censorship, or intimidation—legal, political, or extralegal" (page 176).

This little volume contains indispensable material for the critical assessment of Dr. Dewey's work.

HERMAN H. HORNE

*Censored: The Private Life of the Movies*, by MORRIS L. ERNST and PARE LORENTZ. New York: Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith, 1930, xvi+199 pages.

The tale here is lush and full of inordinate humor. At first blush it seems incredible that such fellows as Heller, Knapp, and Chesterman actually exist in the flesh, and that, moreover, they should wield such a potent scepter. But facts are facts, and these in the main the Messrs. Ernst and Lorentz have set down with irrefutable precision. To caress their argument with even greater force, they have thrown in a gallery

of portraits. Fourteen in number, these are not only handsome but highly instructive. Mostly they represent racy moments which shoved up the censorial blood pressure, and which, hence, have been ordered out of the original film. The authors, graciously enough, also include in their show the likenesses of the illustrious Messrs. Heller and Chesterman. Respectively, these are the cinema watchdogs of Virginia and Maryland Free State. Mr. Heller, before he was crowned movie Cerberus in his particular State, was active as "hair dyer, jeweler, printer, clothing designer, doctor." Mr. Chesterman's talents are not so rounded. He is a "kind but firm gentleman," however, who reports the censorship business in Virginia to be "better than ever." His picture is superb, and is easily worth the price of the whole book. For the statistical doctors there is a Sin Chart which lists all the censor cuts for 1928. Therein one becomes cognizant with such delectable news that on seventeen occasions the guardians of *Staatsmoral* were obliged to kick out "reference to suicide." "Display of dangerous weapons" went down the chute 528 times. "Capital punishment" got 11 thrusts on the chin. "Nose-thumbings," which on the cinema index is Number 16A, was hurled outside 32 times.

Curiously enough, only half a dozen States employ censors; namely, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Kansas, Virginia, and Ohio. As might be expected, these watchdogs of public morals run pretty true to the uplift stripe, and so they try to spread the good fruits of their work to the other less fortunate States. And in this they have succeeded. Precisely what their business is no one seems to know. In the main, however, it appears to be appetizing. Thus they shed much heat fixing the exact length of film footage that manages to keep a kiss moral. One of their main functions appears to be the changing of captions. Thus they transformed the wicked "It made a bum out of me and sent my boy to hell," to the artistic and respectable "It wrecked my life and sent my boy to hell." In their expert and moral hands the line "Do you think this bed is big enough for two" was made safe for the American citizenry by being disguised as "Another pillow?" "He's so dumb we don't have to be careful," is made pure by being ditched for "He's so dumb we can get away with anything."

Much more menacing to the cinema than all this idiocy, as the authors well point out, is the stern and puissant hand of commerce. The movies, as every one knows, represent Big Business. As such, despite the wailings of its aesthetic dignitaries, they are consecrated to gold rather than to art. And gold is never quite at ease when dealing with novel and startling ideas—good as these may be. Hence the movie barons are on the prowl not for better and finer pictures—as the Russians and Germans for example—but seek rather the cut and dried stuff that is always safe and economically triumphant. This of course is not art but mountebankery. It is also the chief reason why the movies in America are mainly rubbish.

All this the Messrs. Ernst and Lorentz show with logic and pungency, and though they slip now and then from the rail of facts, what they have to say is civilized and commendable.

ADOLPH E. MEYER

*Advanced Biology*, by FRANK M. WHEAT and ELIZABETH T. FITZPATRICK. New York: The American Book Company, 1929, 567 pages.

*Community Hygiene*, by DEAN FRANKLIN SMILEY and ADRIAN GORDON GOULD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929, 350 pages.

*Values and Methods in Health Education*, by WALTER FRANK COBB. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1929, 362 pages.

*The Layman Looks at Doctors*, by S. W. and J. T. PIERCE. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1929, 251 pages.

Among the books dealing directly or indirectly with the solution of the problem of health, not one impresses me more than this *Advanced Biology*. It deals not only with the problem of health, but with other problems in its field. In recent years biologists have conceived the problem of health as coming more and more within their province and this book gives even greater emphasis than others of its kind.

It is a book designed for the secondary schools and is clearly the best book, in the opinion of the reviewer, that has come from the press. The subject matter is carefully selected, the language is forceful and direct, the topics are adequately discussed, and the make-up of the book is in excellent taste.

The topics of greatest interest to the student of health problems are those dealing with Food Nutrients, The Teeth and Their Care, The Digestive System, Mental Hygiene, Eugenics, Bacteria, Smallpox and Its Control, Tuberculosis and Its Prevention, and so forth. As a matter of fact, the central theme of the text is the problem of health. The book is an outstanding contribution in the field of health and should find a place in the biology and health classes both in secondary schools and teacher-training institutions.

*Community Hygiene* deals directly with the problem of health and includes in its discussion a number of important topics such as Insects and Disease, The Relation of the Weather and Outdoor Air to Health, Water and Disease, and so forth. It attempts to present the problems of community hygiene and is designed for the college student.

The purpose of the book is outlined by the author in the following terms: "What the college student wants and needs in this field of community hygiene is perhaps not so much a specific knowledge of the exact steps which must be taken to protect adequately a community from typhoid fever or malaria or to reduce its infant mortality as it is a knowledge of what in general the science of public health has to offer towards the solution of common community health problems. From a college course in community hygiene, a student should become familiar with general terms in which to think of community health problems for which he could hardly expect to learn the actual working formulae."

The book does not add anything in particular to the numerous other books that have appeared in the field. It, at the same time, gives a good summary of the problems of public health and provides suitable text material for the teacher of health courses in college.

*Values and Methods in Health Education* differs from the other books reviewed in this list in that it attempts to deal with the problem of method. The author does not attempt to give completeness of treatment, rather to select a few of the problems of health and to present the methods by which these facts should be presented to children. The weakness of the book lies in the fact that it attempts to cover the whole field of method and therefore, within the space devoted to the topic, does not offer material that would be of very much help to the teacher, since other texts accomplish much more effectively the work attempted in this.

It serves as an introduction to the study of health and no doubt will be found of use in introductory classes in normal schools. The book is well printed and is pleasing to the eye.

*The Layman Looks at Doctors* is a popularly written book, presented as a case history told by a patient treated by a number of physicians, with definite attitudes towards the patient, and includes Treatment by Minimization, Treatment by Methodic Brutality, and so forth. In the chapters dealing with the various methods of treatment, the author has a keen sense of humor and one would recognize, out of his own experience, the various types of physicians described. For literary purposes they are exaggerated but, nevertheless, they are real characters and this part of the book is worth an evening and will well repay the reader for his efforts.

The weakness of the book lies in its concluding chapter, in which the author attempts to make a case for the psychoanalyst. This chapter represents about as complete absence of any scientific, and one can almost say intelligent, presentation as would be possible. The author evidently is committed to a definite point of view and is so convinced of its correctness that the absurdity of certain assured facts fails to impress the writer with the ridiculousness of them.

There is no attempt here to criticize the psychoanalyst or to deny the value of that form of treatment in many cases. As a matter of fact, the physicians make use of the method of the psychoanalyst in his treatment but when an author seriously proposes some of the statements made in this chapter as facts, it can only make one smile. The book is worth reading in its entirety to get the interest in the treatment in the earlier chapters and in the conclusion.

The reading of the book will not accomplish the purpose of its author in his effort to make a case for a psychoanalyst but will make the intelligent reader critical and skeptical about this modern method of treatment.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

*Principles of Rural-Urban Sociology*, by PITIRIM SOROKIN and CARLE C. ZIMMERMAN. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929, xv+652 pages.

This book is unfortunate mainly in its title. It is not a book of principles and only in a limited sense is it sociology. If it had been called "Demographic Comparisons of Urban and Rural Populations," or something of that sort, the reader would have known what to expect from it, and would not have been disappointed. It is too good a book to be so badly introduced. Its treatment is almost wholly descriptive, and covers almost the entire range of social traits from birth- and death-rates, through marriage, disease, intelligence, and crime, to attitudes and culture. There is also a section on rural-urban migration. It is packed with interesting and useful information, and will serve as an excellent handbook for those who have need to contrast city and country populations.

HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD

*Economic Trends in Soviet Russia*, by A. YUGOFF. Translated by EDEN and CEDAR PAUL. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1930, xix+349 pages.

This book is the English version of a work published in German and Russian during the spring of 1929. According to the author, this edition is different from the original only in the addition of statistical comparisons bearing on economic conditions in Great Britain and the United States.

The author of this interesting and carefully documented work takes the view that the Bolshevik attempt to thrust an economically backward country like Russia at one stride into socialism was utopian. He attempts to prove this by a study of economic conditions in Russia: (1) prewar, (2) during the phase of "war communism," (3) after the inauguration of the "new economic policy" by Lenin, and (4) during the most recent years. His argument is supported by abundant official statistics, by self-critical extracts from the Soviet press, and by quotations from the opposition within the Russian Communist Party.



His main contention is that the Russian revolution was only a *bourgeois* revolution wearing a communist mask; and that under extant conditions a socialist revolution was impossible. He does not charge that the Bolsheviks are insincere, but he does believe that they are out-generated by economic forces.

Eighteen chapters are devoted to this work. After a brief review of the conditions before and during the war, the author discusses present conditions in Russian industry. The chapters dealing with the Industrialization of Russia, Present Condition of Russian Agriculture, Internal Trade, Currency and State Finance, Labor and Purposive Economics and State Regulation are especially interesting.

This book gives one of the most accurate and comprehensive pictures of conditions in Soviet Russia that has come from the press within the past ten years.

J. N. ANDREWS

*Reconstructing Behavior in Youth*, by WILLIAM HEALY, AUGUSTA BRONNER, EDITH BAYLOR, and J. PRENTICE MURPHY. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1929, 325 pages.

This welcome book deals with a study of 501 delinquent children for whom foster-home placing was tried as a means of rehabilitation. We are confronted with an account of how far human behavior was discovered to be modifiable by means of the temporary placement of young offenders in homes other than their own. Eighty-five per cent of the delinquents showing normal mentality and personality ceased to be delinquent under the conditions of foster-home care. The outstanding factors in lack of success appear to be abnormal mentality and personality, too short placement, and family interference with the foster home. It goes without saying that the process of placing out employed for these cases was of a high order of excellence.

Except for some psychotherapy, the case treatment is largely on a common-sense basis. There is a tendency to cite as cured cases illustrated for us from one instance or the use of one device, and the reader is scarcely convinced that the treatment holds. The fact of a fifteen to twenty per cent margin of failure means that we are far from being able to control behavior in anything like scientific ways, but the authors are seldom guilty of overclaiming for any of their results. From many viewpoints, the study is highly significant. It is a story in reconditioning human behavior by changing environment and it appears to confirm the family as the unit of social life, affording some subtle influences found nowhere else. There is presented here a hopeful, though not foolproof, program for the readjustment of delinquent children, a program that merits further development and scientific control for the light it will shed on the baffling problems of treatment.

A. M. CONKLIN



*A Study of the Educational Achievement of Problem Children*, by RICHARD H. PAYNTER and PHYLLIS BLANCHARD. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1929, 64 pages.

With the idea of verifying a common assumption made by those interested in behavior problems, the authors studied 330 cases of problem children handled by the Commonwealth Clinics, 167 cases having been drawn from the Los Angeles Clinic and 163 from Philadelphia. The investigators were "interested primarily in the interference with school achievement by personality deviations, behavior difficulties, physical defects and social forces per se, uncomplicated by serious organic lesions or native poverty of intellectual equipment." The subjects ranged in intelligence quotient from 80 to 154 and they were studied by the usual clinical method employed in psychiatric clinics. With the theory in favor of personality maladjustment inevitably affecting educational achievement, the authors carefully scrutinized their methods when they found that problem children show no general tendency towards low educational achievement. Apparently, this is a fact. A large proportion of these children were reported as problems by their teachers and the authors note with satisfaction the distinct advance in the socialization of the school as evidenced by the increasing number of childhood problems which are not directly concerned with the curriculum or classroom routine. We need many more studies of this good kind.

A. M. CONKLIN

*Educational Disability and Case Studies in Remedial Teaching*, by HARRY J. BAKER. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1929, 169 pages.

The writer combed the elementary-school population of seven elementary schools in Detroit for students doing unsatisfactory work in the four fundamental skills: arithmetic, spelling, reading, and handwriting. Sixty cases were discovered to be in need of special coaching and coaching teachers were provided, each teacher covering two schools and carrying twenty pupils under her wing. After coaching, the pupils were restored to regular classes as soon as that was feasible and their histories were followed for a few terms to discover the permanence of their improvement. Briefly, 49 per cent of them improved in arithmetic, 41 per cent improved in spelling, 37 per cent improved in reading, and 100 per cent improved in handwriting sufficiently to bring their work up to grade standards. The total percentage of such improvement for all cases was approximately 45 and on the basis of his findings, the investigator recommends the employment of some special coaching teachers in all school systems producing children retarded, for reasons other than defective intelligence, in the important elementary-school branches.

A very significant part of the findings is that personal and social factors play a decided part in the disability, only seven of the cases failing to show pronounced personality difficulties. The personality difficulties cited are clinical material—daydreaming, unfortunate home conditions aggravating personality deviations, nervousness, excessive timidity, speech defects, and so on. These factors were not handled by the investigator who confined his interests to the improvement in school subject matter. The program in remedial teaching is expensive. It scarcely seems justified if the net gain is only higher percentages in school work, when the personal and social aberrations still persist. Remedial teaching would be a good adjunct to a mental-hygiene program but it can scarcely "go it alone," especially if it admits every step of the way that it is being defeated by factors in the total situation to which it is not prepared to attend.

A. M. CONKLIN

*Just Normal Children*, by FLORENCE MATEER. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929, 290 pages.

The trail-blazing psychologist beckons the puzzled parent up roads that are often steep, but not without reward. The present volume is one of the most optimistic of the books on children's behavior problems because it includes the whole gamut, but no problem apparently is too serious to be ameliorated. We must particularly thank the author for the inclusion of the word "normal" in her title, for it augurs a turning point in our attitude of embarrassment over having, or being, a so-called "problem" child. Dr. Mateer makes abundantly clear that "problem" children occur in all kinds of homes, under the supervision of all kinds of parents, and indeed makes us wonder how any of us ever escaped falling into the category. The reassuring point is that few need remain in the category if, by chance, they tumble into it.

The book is instructively and simply written and will meet the real need of parents. One wishes the author had not chosen the question-and-answer method of presenting her material, but perhaps many of the parents will imitate the reviewer in reading the answers only. The treatment of the problems is often unconventional, but in specific situations, effectual; we know too little about treatment as such to be able to phrase generalizations with any safety. The presentation of an array of cases has particular merit as a way of educating parents who want to know.

A. M. CONKLIN

*The Growing Boy* (Case Studies of Developmental Age), by PAUL HANLEY FURFEY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930, viii+192 pages.

*The Growing Boy* is concerned with the development of personality in boys between their sixth and sixteenth birthdays. It is the author's contention that unless we understand the characteristics of the pre-school period, the gang age, adolescence, and the various intermediate

ages, we are unable to meet intelligently the diverse problems of childhood.

The chapter headings are on Growth in General, Developmental Age, The First Six Years, The Six-Year Old, The Eight-Year Old, The Ten-Year Old, The Twelve-Year Old, Adolescence, The Fourteen-Year Old, and the Sixteen-Year-Old.

On the whole the book is well written and the case studies are well chosen to illustrate the principles involved. The author adopts a synoptic point of view. He utilizes the good material from many sources. In a few instances it seems that uncritical students would be likely to draw the wrong inferences from the statements given. On page 107 we have, for example, this statement: "Along with this increased bodily size comes an increased freedom from disease." The reviewer would like to ask: Is this increased freedom from disease due to the increase in bodily size or is it due to the fact that the child has been rendered immune to many of the contagious diseases in previous years? On page 131 the author alleges that Tracy and Kirkpatrick have written largely from the theoretical standpoint and that Stanley Hall's data were much more reliable. It is the opinion of the reviewer that both Tracy and Kirkpatrick followed Stanley Hall's views for the most part. It also appears that the author overemphasizes the suddenness of the adolescent changes.

The book should meet with wide reception. In courses in the field of the psychology of childhood and adolescence this book will be useful as a supplementary text.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

*History of Experimental Psychology*, by EDWIN C. BORING. New York: The Century Company, 1929, 699 pages.

*History of Experimental Psychology* by Dr. Boring of Harvard University has no peer with its type of publication. It indicates the care of a scientist. It took eight years to write. It focuses attention on a specific period of the world's history, the period from 1860 to 1910, and it is interesting to note that Dr. Boring stayed within this period. This is a period in which psychology was dominated by the experimental method and scientific ideals. The Introduction, which deals with the history of science, is illuminating, and shows how scientific psychology has emerged from the other sciences which, in turn, grew out of philosophy. The philosophical and physiological antecedents of modern psychology are considered separately.

After dealing with the evolution of the scientific method and point of view, Dr. Boring presents the history of the physiological psychology in the first half of the nineteenth century. Here he deals with the work of Muller, Marshall Hall, Claude Bernard. He next picks up the story of phrenology and the mind-body problem. From that he goes to a study of the physiology of the brain, the specific energy of nerves,

the physiological psychology of sensation, and the period when hypnotism and mesmerism were in the foreground. He shows how experimental psychology was within the range of philosophical psychology for a period of years. In this he deals with the work of Descartes, Leibnitz, and Locke.

The English psychology of the eighteenth century receives due consideration as well as the British associationism and the German psychologists of the nineteenth century.

In chapter 17 the experimental psychology of Ebbinghaus, Kulpe, Titchener, and the psychological physiologists is fully discussed. In chapter 20 he discusses American psychology and its pioneers, such as James, Hall, Ladd, Scripture, Baldwin, Cattell, and others. He further shows the development of functional psychology, mental tests, animal psychology, and applied psychology. In chapter 22 he brings emphasis to bear upon *Gestalt* psychology and behaviorism, together with other contemporary psychologies.

The book is a monumental work—an outstanding piece of work—one which no student of psychology can afford to be without. A book which should be read by every major in the field of psychology in our universities as well as by the layman who is interested in the progressive growth and development of a great experimental science.

C. E. BENSON

*Statistics for Beginners in Education*, by FREDERICK L. WHITNEY. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929, xviii+123 pages.

The purpose of the author—that of providing a brief text for a short course in statistics for the use of normal schools and teachers colleges with a view to clarifying simple procedure and defining terms—is admirably fulfilled.

The inductive approach is used by presenting a typical educational study of individual differences of pupils. This section represents a great deal of waste motion. The treatment of certain topics is necessarily superficial and one may question the advisability of including certain topics, as multiple correlation, while others, such as percentile rank, are neglected. The text seems to show no appreciable improvement over previous similar brief treatments, except in point of practical applications.

PAUL V. WEST

## NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The department of educational sociology of the School of Education of New York University is offering the following program of courses during the year 1930-1931:

### Monday

- 4.15-6.00 220.1-2  
Social Determination of the Curriculum—Asst. Dean Payne
- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4D  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Archer
- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Broxson

### Tuesday

- 11.00-1.00 020.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Prof. Stalcup
- 11.00-1.00 020.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Archer
- 4.15-6.00 120.27-28.  
Health and Growth of School Children—Dr. Galdston
- 4.15-6.00 220.35-36  
Community Institutions and Social Agencies—Prof. Zorbaugh
- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Archer
- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Dr. A. E. Belden
- 6.15-8.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Prof. Thrasher
- 6.15-8.00 120.23-24  
Nature and Needs of the Child in Social Life—Dr. Galdston
- 6.15-8.00 120.3-4D  
Educational Sociology—Dr. Belden

### Wednesday

- 4.15-6.00 120.71-72  
Social Adjustment of Atypical Children—Miss Conklin
- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Prof. Stalcup
- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4D  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Archer
- 4.30-6.15 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Broxson  
(University Heights Division)
- 6.15-8.00 120.39-40  
Education and Nationalism—Prof. Stalcup
- 6.15-8.00 320.9-10  
Advanced Social Research—Dr. Thrasher

## Thursday

- 4.15-6.00 120.45-46  
Social Pathology and Education—Mr. Anderson  
4.15-6.00 120.73-74  
Visiting Teacher—Miss Conklin  
4.15-6.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Asst. Dean Payne  
6.15-8.00 220.51-52  
Personality and Social Adjustment—Prof. Zorbaugh  
6.15-8.00 220.33-34  
Community Organization—Prof. Thrasher  
6.15-8.00 120.3-4D  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Belden  
8.00-10.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Whitley

## Friday

- 4.15-6.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Broxson  
4.15-6.00 220.75-76  
The Family—Miss Conklin  
6.15-8.00 220.5-6  
Advanced Educational Sociology—Prof. Stalcup  
6.15-8.00 120.55-56  
Experimental Sociology—Prof. Zorbaugh  
6.15-8.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Miss Boardman

## Saturday

- 9.15-11.00 320.1-2  
Seminar in Educational Sociology—Dean Payne and Prof. Stalcup  
9.15-11.00 320.3-4  
Seminar in Clinical Practice—Miss Conklin and Prof. Zorbaugh  
9.15-11.00 120.57-58  
Social Backgrounds of the School Child—Dr. Thrasher  
9.15-11.00 120.4  
Educational Sociology (given first term)—Mr. Whitley  
9.15-11.00 120.3-4  
Educational Sociology—Mr. Archer  
11.15-1.00 120.11-12  
Education in Health—Asst. Dean Payne  
11.15-1.00 120.20  
Juvenile Delinquency (given second term)—Prof. Zorbaugh  
11.15-1.00 120.49-50  
Sociological Foundation of Learning—Prof. Stalcup  
11.15-1.00 320.7-8  
Seminar in Problems of Educational Sociology—Prof. Thrasher



11.15-1.00 120.17-18

Behavior Disorders—Dr. Robinson

11.15-1.00 120.3-4

Educational Sociology—Mr. Whitley

*Pacific Southwest Sociological Association*

The first general meeting of the Pacific Southwest Sociological Association was held in Los Angeles, January 25th, in connection with the Pacific Southwest Center of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. The Sociological Association was recently organized for the purpose of promoting both sociological research and the teaching of sociology in the Pacific Southwest. The officers of the Association are: Dr. E. S. Bogardus, University of Southern California, president; Dr. William Kirk, Pomona College, vice president; Dr. L. D. Osborn, University of Redlands, secretary-treasurer; Professor George Day, Occidental College, chairman of the program committee; and Dr. M. H. Neumeyer, University of Southern California, chairman of the membership committee.

*A New Professional Degree*

A new professional degree, Doctor of Education (Ed.D.), to be granted by the School of Education of Indiana University, was announced recently by Dean H. L. Smith.

"The degree was created because of a long-felt need for an advanced degree in the School of Education," Dean Smith said. "It differs from the Ph.D. degree in three respects. Each prospective candidate for the Ed.D. degree must pass a satisfactory qualifying examination one academic year prior to the time at which the degree is to be conferred; a reading knowledge of the modern languages will not be required, unless it is needed for prosecution of the thesis problem, and each candidate must present a thesis on some problem in the major field of specialization, according to the list of requirements. Also, the thesis may be in the nature of a mature and expert evaluation and organization of existing problems in the field of education or it may be in the nature of an original contribution through research in education, regarded as an applied science," it was explained.

"The qualifying examination will consist of two parts, one written and one oral, and will be designed to test the general knowledge of the candidate in the field of education not included in the written examination, and his ability to react in dealing orally with professional subjects. The results of these examinations, both written and oral, shall be considered as a whole by the faculty of the School of Education."

*The Boy and Girl Wins*

A court decision of very great significance was recently rendered by Judge Nelson Sawyer as referee in a contesting suit to nullify a New York State law which gives the people of any one of several school dis-

tricts the opportunity of setting up a community junior high school. The decision as rendered holds the law valid, thus marking another milestone in the evolution of our school system and giving larger opportunities to boys and girls of junior-high-school age in New York State. Decisions of this kind, while occupying a very insignificant place in the press, are of great social significance.

#### *Society Meetings*

A communication from Professor Burgess, of the University of Chicago and also the secretary-treasurer of the American Sociological Society, says: "For the first time in its history the American Sociological Society will hold its annual meeting at the same time and place as the American Association for the Advancement of Science—December 29-31 in Cleveland, Ohio. This great assembly of social and physical scientists will be an eventful occasion . . . the meetings of the American Sociological Society will be organized around the increasingly significant topic of 'Social Conflict.' President Howard W. Odam is arranging joint programs with the anthropology economists and political scientists."

#### *Nation-Wide Shortage of Trained Social Workers*

Approximately 1,250 properly trained social welfare workers will be required in 234 cities of the United States and Canada during the year 1931, according to an estimate made today by Ruth Hill, personal director of the Family Welfare Association of America, as a result of a survey conducted among its 234 affiliated societies. The present acute shortage of trained workers will continue for several years during which more than 6,000 new workers will be needed for family welfare work.

Dr. Charles A. Ellwood, for many years professor of sociology in the University of Missouri, has recently been called to the headship of the new department of Sociology at Duke University. Dr. Ellwood is the author of many important books. The more recent are: *The Psychology of Human Society*, *Reconstruction of Religion*, *Cultural Evolution*, and *Man's Social Destiny in the Light of Science*. During the last week of June, Dr. Ellwood delivered a series of lectures on "Reconstruction of Our Civilization" before the Auburn Summer School of Theology at Auburn, New York. During the summer session of New York University, Dr. Ellwood gave a course in "Education and Social Control." He takes up his work at Duke in September of this year.

## CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

George Sylvester Counts is associate director of the International Institute of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Professor Counts is a native of Kansas. He received his A.B. from Baker University in 1911, and his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1916. He has been connected with Delaware College, Harris Teachers College, University of Washington, Yale University, and the University of Chicago. His fields of special interest have been educational sociology and secondary education. He has been a special investigator for the Commonwealth Fund, and a member of the Philippine Educational Survey Commission (1924). His most notable contribution to education is *Principles of Education* (with J. C. Chapman). He has spent the past summer in Europe, most of the time being devoted to Russia. His latest book is *The American Road to Culture*.

Professor Richard T. Ely, of the University of Wisconsin, is one of the best known political economists in America. Professor Ely received his A.B. and A.M. from Columbia University and his doctorate from the University of Heidelberg. As one reads the sketch of Dr. Ely in *Who's Who* and attempts to abbreviate it he finds himself in difficulty, because the productions have been so numerous, the membership in such a wide range of organizations, and the honors conferred are so extensive. Dr. Ely was a professor of political economy in Johns Hopkins, 1881 to 1892; from 1892 to 1895 he was professor of political economy in the University of Wisconsin, and an honorary professor since that date. His *Outlines of Economics* has been one of the outstanding texts in its field for a generation.

William Green has been president of the American Federation of Labor since 1925. Mr. Green came up from the ranks of the United Mine Workers of America to his present high position as a representative of labor. Mr. Green is the author of the Ohio Workmen's Compensation Law.

Miss Hazel Kyrk is associate professor of home economics and economics at the University of Chicago. Miss Kyrk received her doctorate at the University of Chicago. Before going to Chicago she held teaching positions in Overland College, Stanford University, and Iowa State College.

Professor L. C. Marshall is a member of the department of economics at Johns Hopkins University.

Sir Josiah Stamp, G.B.E., LL.D., Sc.D., Fellow of the British Academy, needs no introduction to American readers.